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ABSTRACT

A study examined the development of reading, written expression and listening comprehension over 3 years. The participants were 77 students in Brisbane, Australia, who were identified by school staff as having a learning difficulty at the end of grade one and who were matched with the same number of normally achieving children attending the same classes. The children were assessed on each of the literacy measures annually. Multivariate analysis of variance indicated differences between the groups on all measures with a gender effect for listening comprehension in grade four; children with a learning difficulty were less successful on all tasks than their peers. Correlational analyses revealed inconsistent patterns between the two groups with correlation coefficients being typically lower for the children with a learning difficulty than for their peers. Causal modeling demonstrated the power of reading in grade two to predict future reading performance of all children in the study; however, different patterns of influence across the language arts domains were found for both groups. (Two tables and two figures of data are included. Contains 44 references.) (Author/RS)

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Reading, Written Expression and Listening Comprehension of Students with a Learning Difficulty: A Longitudinal Study

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Abstract

This study examined the development of reading, written expression and listening comprehension over three years. The participants were 77 male and female children who were identified by school staff as having a learning difficulty at the end of Grade 1 and who were matched with the same number of normally achieving children attending the same classes. The children were assessed on each of the literacy measures annually. Multivariate analysis of variance indicated differences between the groups on all measures with a gender effect for listening comprehension in Grade 4 and children with a learning difficulty were less successful on all tasks than their peers. Correlational analyses revealed inconsistent patterns between the two groups with correlation coefficients being typically lower for the children with a learning difficulty than their peers. Causal modelling demonstrated the power of reading in Grade 2 to predict future reading performance of all children in the study, however, different patterns of influence across the language arts domains were found for both groups.

Introduction

The problems experienced by children with learning disabilities in reading, spelling, and mathematics have long been a source of concern for their teachers, parents and researchers (Alley & Deshler, 1979; Smith & Rivera, 1991; Stanovich, 1986; Torgesen, 1991; van Kraayenoord & Elkins, 1990). Considerable attention has been given to early reading development (Clay, 1985; Morrow, 1989), reading comprehension (Garner, Alexander, & Chou Hare, 1991), and metacognition (Wong & Jones, 1982; Wong & Wong, 1986), while less interest has been shown in other language skills such as written expression and listening. This study deals with the relationship between reading, written expression, and listening comprehension of children with learning difficulties over a three year period, and examines the impact of each language arts domain on the others.

The difficulties that some students experience in the language arts have been attributed to particular deficits (e.g., problems with speech perception, vocabulary, syntax and semantics), information processing deficiencies (e.g., strategy use and metacognitive knowledge), and to personal characteristics (e.g., inactivity as learners and problem solvers and low motivation) which restrict the development of essential literacy skills (Borkowski, Weyhing & Carr, 1988; Paris & Winograd, 1990). Reading has been the most popular focus for literacy researchers with attention being given to certain areas such as phonemic awareness, decoding skills, comprehension, and metacognitive knowledge about reading (Garner, 1987; Juel, 1988; Wong, 1991).

The study of children's written expression similarly has shown the need for a complex combination of essential skills ranging from the physical manipulation of the writing tools (pencil, pen or keyboard), knowledge of syntax, semantics and spelling, to affective variables that govern the expression of mood, humor and genre-related emphases. The assessment of written expression has focused on many of these skills (see e.g., Tindal & Parker, 1989; Watkinson & Lee, 1992) and students with learning disabilities have been shown to have problems with basic text production (idea generation, vocabulary), scant knowledge about writing (sentence construction, rules), and difficulties with planning, organizing and revising text (Hall, 1988; Houck & Billingsley, 1989; Graham, Harris, MacArthur, & Schwartz, 1991; Pressley, Symons, Snyder, & Cariglia-Bull, 1989). Listening skills have also been associated with various language and literacy problems (Carpenter & Miller, 1982; Lerner, 1989) and basic information processing abilities (Shankweiler & Crain, 1986; Spring & French; 1990). Still others have suggested that conceptual and organizational proficiencies are fundamental to written communication, speaking, listening, and reading (Polloway, Paton, & Cohen, 1981) while several longitudinal studies of children's literacy development have led to insights into the relationships between specific literacy skills (e.g., Juel, Griffith & Gough, 1986; Perfetti, Beck, Bell, & Hughes, 1987; Skowronek & Marx, 1989). Mommers (1987), for example, used LISREL modelling to determine the influence of various sub-skills in word recognition, reading comprehension and spelling over three years. He found that low skill levels in Grade 1 predicted later achievement, although the pattern of effects varied across decoding skills, reading comprehension and spelling and across time. In another study, Juel (1988) found that children with literacy problems maintained their deficiencies over time: poor readers in Grade 1 were still poor readers in Grade 4 and poor readers tended to become poor writers although the association between early and later reading was stronger than between early and later writing.

The investigation reported here is part of a longitudinal study of children who were identified as having a learning difficulty at the end of Grade 1. This study addressed the relationship between reading, written expression and listening comprehension across Grades 2 to 4 and dealt specifically with three research questions: Are there statistically significant differences in literacy performance between the children with and without a learning difficulty? Do children who are poor performers in reading, writing and listening remain poor performers over time? Does reading performance in Grade 2 predict future performances in written expression and listening comprehension?

Method

Setting and Participants

The study and the selection of participants was based upon the practices that prevail in all Australian education systems. In particular, the identification of children with special needs and the provision of support services are not stipulated under federal or state law as they are in the US and will vary from state to state and even from school to school. This is a result of a report of a Select Committee of the Australian House of Representatives which was established to investigate the problems of children and adults who experienced trouble with literacy or numeracy (Cadman, 1976). The Committee chose to use the term learning difficulties (rather than disabilities) and argued that definitions were irrelevant to the funding of support services (which was the opposite of the prevailing view in the US) because they may lead to an undue expansion of categorical services and possibly produce more children in need of special assistance (Elkins & van Kraayenoord, 1990). As a result, the identification of children with a learning difficulty and the decision to provide remedial assistance to them is based upon professional judgment, assessed needs and consultation between school and support staff (Safran, 1989).

The study was conducted in 50 schools in Brisbane, Australia. In 1989, school personnel were asked to select one child who was experiencing difficulty in learning at the end of Grade 1 and who would be receiving remedial assistance in Grade 2. Several exclusion criteria were applied, the children: (a) did not have an intellectual disability, (b) were not emotionally disturbed; (c) did not have a physical or sensory impairment; (d) did not have English as a second language; and (e) had not repeated a school year. Each child with a learning difficulty was matched with a normally achieving child on the basis of gender, class membership and age (that is, both children were born within 6 months of each other). Parental consent was obtained to include 100 children in the study (50 pairs) in 1989 and a further 94 were recruited from the Grade 2 enrolments in the same schools in 1990. Complete data over a three year period were available for the 154 students included in this study. Of the children with a learning difficulty there were 57 males (Grade 4 mean age=104.8 months; SD=3.29) and 20 females (Grade 4 mean age=103.6 months; SD=3.73). There were also 57 normally achieving males (Grade 4 mean age=104.9 months; SD=3.79) and 20 females (Grade 4 mean age=104.1 months; SD=3.51).

Assessment Tasks

Data were collected from the children when they were in Grades 2, 3 and 4. A battery of tests was administered each year which included measures of academic achievement, information processing and affective variables. In this study we report data relating to three measures only.

Reading. Two reading tests were used in this study. The Neale Analysis of Reading Ability—Revised (Neale, 1988) was administered in 1989 and 1990 to collect information about children's oral reading accuracy and their comprehension following oral reading. The Neale is a well-known Australian test which contains a series of narrative texts, including a practice passage. The test has two forms; Form 1 was used on the first occasion and Form 2 in the following year. All children began with the practice passage and continued reading and answering the accompanying comprehension questions until the reader reached a passage in which 16 errors were made, the procedure stipulated in the Manual. Two scores were obtained. A child's accuracy score was the number of words read correctly on all the passages including the practice passage, up to the criterion passage. The comprehension score was the number of questions answered correctly including those of the practice passage.

In 1989, interrater reliability was established by having two coders score a random sample of 25% of the scripts. The reliability for reading accuracy was 48% and 75% for comprehension. In 1990, reliability was established on 10% of scripts for both the Grade 2 (1990) and Grade 3 (1989)

cohorts. Reliability was 75% for reading accuracy and 100% for comprehension for both groups. In 1991, using 10% of the scripts for the Grade 3 pupils (1990), interrater reliability was 48% for accuracy and 90% for comprehension. When the coders were not in agreement, the first author reconciled the discrepancy.

In 1991, when the children were in Grade 4, the Neale Analysis was no longer appropriate and the Tests of Reading Comprehension (TORCH: Mossenson, Hill & Masters, 1987) was used. This is an untimed, standardized reading test that is widely used in Australia. The test uses a cloze-like procedure (but involves longer stories than is typical of other cloze tasks) to determine children's ability to obtain meaning from text. The test was administered to each pair of pupils together as a silent reading exercise. Children read a passage, passed back the original to the tester then filled the gaps on the printed paraphrase of the story. Responses were scored according to the criteria provided in the Manual and each child's total number of items correct was converted into a scaled score using the tables provided by the authors. The scaled score was recorded for each student in the study. Reliability coefficients (Kuder-Richardson) for passage retelling was reported by Sawyer (1990) which ranged between 0.90 and 0.93 for the various passages. Standard Error of Measurement in the raw score range achieved by students in that study was ±4.

Written Expression. In 1990, the children's were presented with a colourful and humorous picture featuring a balloon-like aircraft in which two adults and two children were flying. In a preliminary study, 50 Grade 2 and 3 children ranked the picture as the most popular, among others, about which boys and girls would most like to write. The picture was used on two occasions, one year apart. Few children indicated their recognition of the picture the second time. When this occurred, the researchers explained their interest in the children's improvement in story writing.

In this activity, each child was given a copy of the picture and told that this was a "thinking and writing task" and they were to "Tell me a story about this picture." They were then each given a piece of lined paper and informed that they had 10-15 minutes to write their story which they could treat as a first draft. In other words, they should spell words they did not know as best they could. When the children's handwriting was difficult to read they were asked to read the story aloud and any words that were written unclearly were identified.

All stories were coded using an adaptation of the category scheme developed by Juel (1988) with anchor points or models from stories written by the 1989 cohort being used to assist coding. Stories were assessed holistically with scores ranging from 1 (low) to 11 (high). The reliability was established on all of the scripts by two coders. Interrater reliabilities were as follows: for the 1989 Grade 3 cohort—96%; 1990 Grade 3 cohort—46%; 1989 Grade 4 cohort—46%; and 1990 Grade 4 cohort—91%. Discrepancies were again reconciled by a third coder.

Listening Comprehension. The Progressive Achievement Tests: Listening Comprehension was developed in New Zealand by Elley and Reid (1971) to examine children's simple recall skills (receptive listening) and inferential comprehension (reflective listening). Form A of the test, beginning at Part 2 (which is the appropriate level for children in Grade 3) was used in 1990. In 1991 testing began at Part 3 of Form A, the level designated as appropriate for children in Grade 4. The children listened to each story as it was read aloud and answered a series of questions, each having four options (A to D) that were printed in an answer booklet. Children selected the answer that they believed to be correct by printing the letter of the answer in the space provided. Test time was 40 minutes. The raw scores were used in the data analyses.

Procedure

The extended test battery was administered in 4 phases during each academic year (one in each of the four school terms) by two trained research assistants who were also qualified elementary teachers. Testing occurred in a quiet room on a one-to-one or one tester-to-two children basis. The Neale and written expression tasks were given during phase 3 testing and the TORCH and listening comprehension during phase 1.

Results

Data collected from both cohorts were combined for analysis. A 2 (Group) x 2 (Gender) multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed using the nine dependent variables listed in Table 1 (which shows means and standard deviations for each group and gender). Multivariate statistics were significant for Group (Hotelling's T^2=.63, approx. $F(9, 142)$=9.956, p<.001) and Gender (Hotelling's T^2=.14, approx. $F(9, 142)$=2.26, p<.05) that permitted the examination of univariate statistics. The interaction effect was not significant (Hotelling's T^2=.05, approx. $F(9, 142)$=.85, p>.05). It must be noted that results of the especially sensitive Box's M test

for Homogeneity of Variance was significant (M=286.6, F(135,13291)=1.80, p<.001). This suggests that some care needs to be exercised when interpreting these findings.

Insert Table 1 about here

Group differences

Significant univariate statistics for Group were found for Oral Reading Accuracy Grade 2 (F (1,150) = 47.18, p<.001), Oral Reading Accuracy Grade 3 (F (1,150) = 62.32, p<.001), Oral Reading Comprehension Grade 2 (F (1,150) = 70.70, p<.001), and Oral Reading Comprehension Grade 3 (F (1,150) = 70.46, p<.001). Normally achieving children were more accurate and comprehended the reading material better than their classmates in Grade 2 and Grade 3 who had a learning difficulty.

A significant Group effect was also found for the TORCH (F (1,150)=48.28, p<.001). The result indicates that the Grade 4 children with a learning difficulty were, again, less able to gain meaning from a passage following silent reading than their peers.

The scores on the Written Expression task shown in Table 1 indicate that the normally achieving children scored higher than their peers with a learning difficulty (Written Expression Grade 3 and Written Expression Grade 4). This was confirmed by significant univariate statistics for Written Expression assessed in Grade 3 (F (1,150) = 17.12, p<.001) and Grade 4, F (1,150) = 27.14, p<.001).

The mean raw scores on the Listening Comprehension measure also appear in Table 1. The univariate F tests indicated significant differences between the groups for Listening Comprehension in Grade 3 (F (1,150) = 21.33, p < .001) and in Grade 4 (F (1,150) = 18.15, p < .001). Again, children with a learning difficulty comprehended less material read to them than the normally achieving children. A Gender effect was also found and attributable to differences in Grade 4 (F (1,150) =3.94, p<.05) when girls achieved lower Listening Comprehension scores than boys.

In summary, the first research question was answered affirmatively: the performance of children with a learning difficulty was significantly lower than that of their peers on reading, written expression and listening comprehension tasks. The second research question was also answered positively: the poor performance of children with learning difficulties persisted over the 3 years in reading, and over the 2 years in written expression and listening comprehension. This result is completely consistent with the results of numerous other studies which have drawn their samples from more traditionally defined populations including children with learning disabilities (see e.g., Gottesman, 1979; Juel, 1988; La Buda & De Fries, 1988; McKinney & Feagans, 1984; Mommers, 1987).

Correlations between assessment tasks

One of the advantages of a longitudinal study is the ability to examine relationships between measures across time. Therefore, two correlation matrices were calculated; one for the pupils with a learning difficulty and one for their normally achieving peers (Table 2).

Insert Table 2 about here

Correlations among the reading variables were moderate to high (r=.45–.88) for both groups. For Written Expression, the relationships were modest; between Grade 3 and 4, r = .29 for the children with a learning difficulty and .37 for children achieving normally. The correlation between Listening Comprehension in Grade 3 with Listening Comprehension in Grade 4 for children who had a learning difficulty and children who were normally achieving was high (r=.71 and .74 respectively).

Some differences between groups will be noticed in the relationships between Written Expression and Listening Comprehension and the reading measures. Only three coefficients were non-significant for the normally achieving students (Reading Accuracy in Grade 2 with Listening Comprehension in Grade 4, and between Written Expression in Grade 3 and both Listening

Comprehension measures). A larger number of non-significant coefficients were obtained for the students with a learning difficulty. Only two significant and modest correlations between Written Expression in Grade 3 and reading for the group of children with a learning difficulty occurred for Reading Comprehension in Grade 3 and the TORCH in Grade 4, although all the correlations between Written Expression and the reading measures were significant for their normally achieving classmates. This pattern was repeated for the correlations between written expression in Grade 4 and reading comprehension in Grade 3, and the TORCH in Grade 4 for the children with a learning difficulty.

Listening comprehension in Grade 3 modestly correlated with reading comprehension in Grade 3 and the TORCH in Grade 4 and with written expression in Grade 3 for the children with a learning difficulty. Listening comprehension in Grade 4 also correlated modestly with reading comprehension in Grade 3 and the TORCH in Grade 4, and only with written expression in Grade 3 for the children with a learning difficulty. Correlations for listening comprehension in Grade 3 and Grade 4 with all the other variables were significant for the group of children who were achieving normally except for the correlations between listening comprehension in Grade 3 and Grade 4 with written expression in Grade 3.

In summary, it appears that different correlation patterns across the three language arts measures exist for the two groups with the coefficients being, on the whole, lower for the children with a learning difficulty. In addition, it appears that for children with a learning difficulty, Reading Accuracy and Reading Comprehension at Grade 2 were unrelated to Written Expression in Grades 3 and 4, and Listening Comprehension in Grades 3 and 4. However, for this group of children, they were modestly related to variables associated with future reading performance and comprehension, especially reading in Grades 3 and 4.

Causal modelling

To explore the predictive power of reading scores obtained during Grade 2 on subsequent literacy achievement, a LISREL analysis (Version VII, Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1988) was undertaken. Our proposed model suggested that reading would influence children's written expression, but not listening comprehension, and that the variables within the same domain would influence each other. It was, however, thought that listening comprehension may affect reading comprehension in later grades (Humphreys & Davey, 1983). Our outcome variables were reading (the scaled score on the TORCH in Grade 4), written expression (the Written Expression scores obtained in Grade 4), and Listening Comprehension (Progressive Achievement Tests: Listening scores obtained in Grade 4). Causal modelling was undertaken for each group separately and the results and standardized path coefficients are shown in Figures 1 and 2.

Insert Figures 1 and 2 about here

The causal modelling for the group of children who have a learning difficulty is shown in Figure 1. The model test yielded a $c^2(26) = 47.73$, $p<.01$, with a goodness-of-fit index (AGI) of .79. Bentler and Bonnet (1980) have suggested that $c^2$and AGI are sample size specific and, therefore, a number of relative indices were computed. Mulaik et al. (1989) have suggested that the indices Rho, Non-Fixed Index (NFI), and Parsimonious Non-Fixed Index (PNFI) provide accurate indicators of model fit. In this analysis, a good fit of the model to the data was found (Rho=.91, NFI=.87 and PNFI=.68).

Reading in Grade 2 had a significant impact on reading in Grade 3 which, in turn, affected reading in Grade 4. Reading in Grade 3 also influenced Written Expression in Grade 4, although there was a non-significant path between reading in Grade 2 and Written Expression in Grade 3. Written Expression in Grade 3, however, influenced both reading and Written Expression in Grade 4. Listening Comprehension in Grade 3 was influential only in predicting Listening Comprehension in Grade 4. Thus, the model shows the power of early reading performance and comprehension to influence reading in two subsequent years, and for reading and Written Expression in Grade 3 to influence each other in Grade 4 for this sample of children.

The causal modelling for the normally achieving children yielded a $c^2(26)$, 78.01, $p<.001$. The model was also a good fit to the data (AGI=.72; Rho=.85; NFI=.89; PNFI=.65). Figure 2 has a somewhat different path coefficients to the model for students with a learning difficulty.

Specifically, reading in Grade 3 does not influence Written Expression in Grade 4, and Written Expression in Grade 3 does not influence reading comprehension in Grade 4.

Overall, as was seen with the correction analyses, the LISREL analyses demonstrate the power of the reading measures in Grade 2 to predict future reading performance for all the children in this study. In addition, reading in Grade 2 influences Written Expression in Grade 4, with Written Expression in Grade 3 have a mediating effect for normally achieving children, but not for children with a learning difficulty. Written Expression in Grade 3 influenced Written Expression in Grade 4 and the same pattern was the case for Listening Comprehension although the association between the latter was much stronger. Thus, these results provide a mixed response to the third research question.

Discussion

One limitation of this study is the lack of an empirically-based description of the children with a learning difficulty. This situation might seriously limit the generalizations that could be made from the study to specific student populations. However, induction into the study exemplifies existing practices in the identification of children with special instructional needs which are minimally influenced by the traditional definition of learning disabilities. Students were identified by school and support staff as having a serious learning problem and, in many cases, were those who were most in need of assistance.

In Australia there appears to be tacit agreement that guidance officers, counselors and teachers can make professional judgments about children's needs without extensive regulations covering eligibility for services and stands in contrast to those employed by school staff in the US. Our study has confirmed, at least in part, the accuracy of judgments made by school personnel about the children with a learning difficulty.

Furthermore, the causal modelling analyses points to the need for teachers to use instructional practices that will develop skills that children have not yet acquired due to their limited literacy experiences. The cross-influence of reading and writing in Grades 3 and 4 for children with a learning difficulty, but not for normally achieving children in the same grades, draws attention to the issue of the generality/specificity of learning problems across the language arts. It suggests that young children with a learning difficulty may not transfer knowledge about reading to their written expression

Finally, our results are consistent with those of other researchers. For example, our finding of the persistence of children's learning difficulties across years provides support for Stanovich's (1986) view that problems in reading become cumulative, with the effects of poor reading skills compounding as children with a learning disability move from one grade to the next. The persistence of their problem is of special concern. The children with a learning difficulty in our study received at least some assistance from Support Teachers—Learning Difficulties who worked both by withdrawing children for individual and small-group instruction or by in-class teaching and consultation. While it is not possible to attribute a cause to the students' continuing difficulties, the study must alert teachers and other support personnel to the continuing need for remediation as children move through elementary school and for regular evaluation of their progress.

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Table 1
Means And Standard Deviations For Variables

	Children with a Learning Difficulty				Normally Achieving Children			
	Male		Female		Male		Female	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Neale Oral Reading Accuracy—Grade 2	53.9	38.90	42.2	37.98	152.9	108.41	141.7	90.84
Neale Oral Reading Comprehension—Grade 2	8.1	3.52	6.9	3.09	15.5	6.21	14.3	4.70
Neale Oral Reading Accuracy—Grade 3	115.8	62.13	106.7	50.21	246.7	122.36	241.8	91.35
Neale Oral Reading Comprehension—Grade 3	10.5	5.34	10.3	4.23	18.9	6.95	19.8	4.63
TORCH Silent Reading Comprehension—Grade 4	15.9	13.99	18.1	15.72	31.3	11.07	36.1	12.65
Written Expression—Grade 3	4.8	1.73	4.9	2.05	6.0	1.98	6.6	1.93
Written Expression—Grade 4	5.7	1.96	6.0	1.79	7.3	2.01	8.0	1.75
Listening Comprehension—Grade 3	20.1	5.47	17.9	4.86	24.6	6.45	23.3	5.88
Listening Comprehension—Grade 4	21.3	5.39	16.8	5.28	23.6	6.61	23.8	5.78

Table 2
Correlations* Among Variables For Children With A Learning Difficulty (Below The Diagonal) And Children Who Are Normally Achieving

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
1. Neale Oral Reading Accuracy—Gr 2	—	.88	.80	.66	.52	.34	.23	.23	.20
2. Neale Oral Reading Comprehension—Gr 2	.87	—	.80	.75	.66	.41	.26	.39	.39
3. Neale Oral Reading Accuracy—Gr 3	.57	.58	—	.84	.68	.37	.27	.32	.34
4. Neale Oral Reading Comprehension—Gr 3	.46	.52	.78	—	.65	.39	.29	.46	.58
5. TORCH Silent Reading Comprehension—Gr 4	.47	.45	.61	.65	—	.40	.40	.46	.45
6. Written Expression Gr 3	.08	.12	.22	.32	.42	—	.37	.22	.19
7. Written Expression Gr 4	.21	.13	.22	.29	.30	.29	—	.26	.23
8. Listening Comprehension Gr 3	.02	.12	.08	.31	.23	.28	.12	—	.74
9 .Listening Comprehension Gr 4	.16	.21	.15	.34	.31	.39	.11	.71	—

* Bold face correlation coefficients indicate $p<.05$

Figure 1

Causal Model For Children With A Learning Difficulty

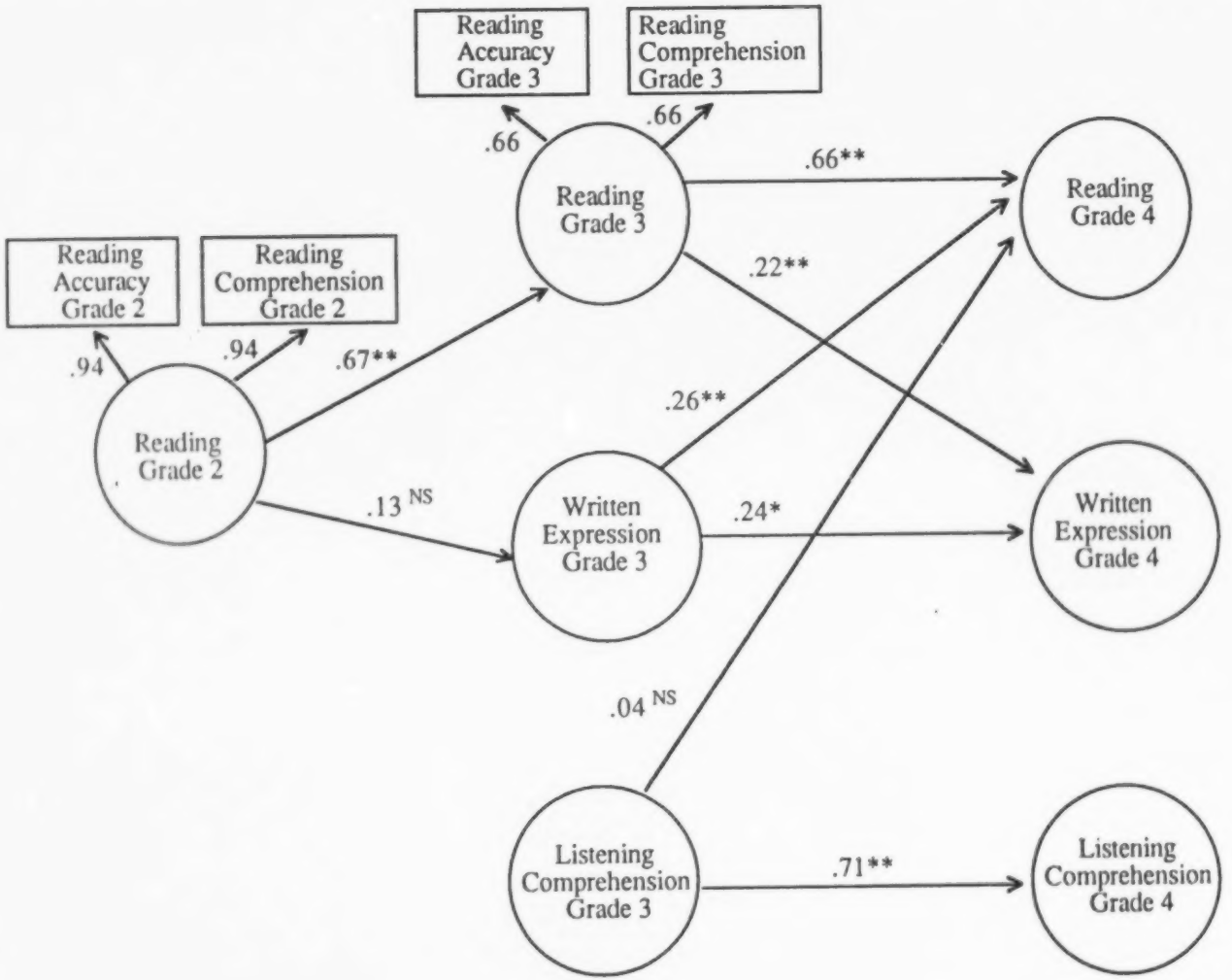
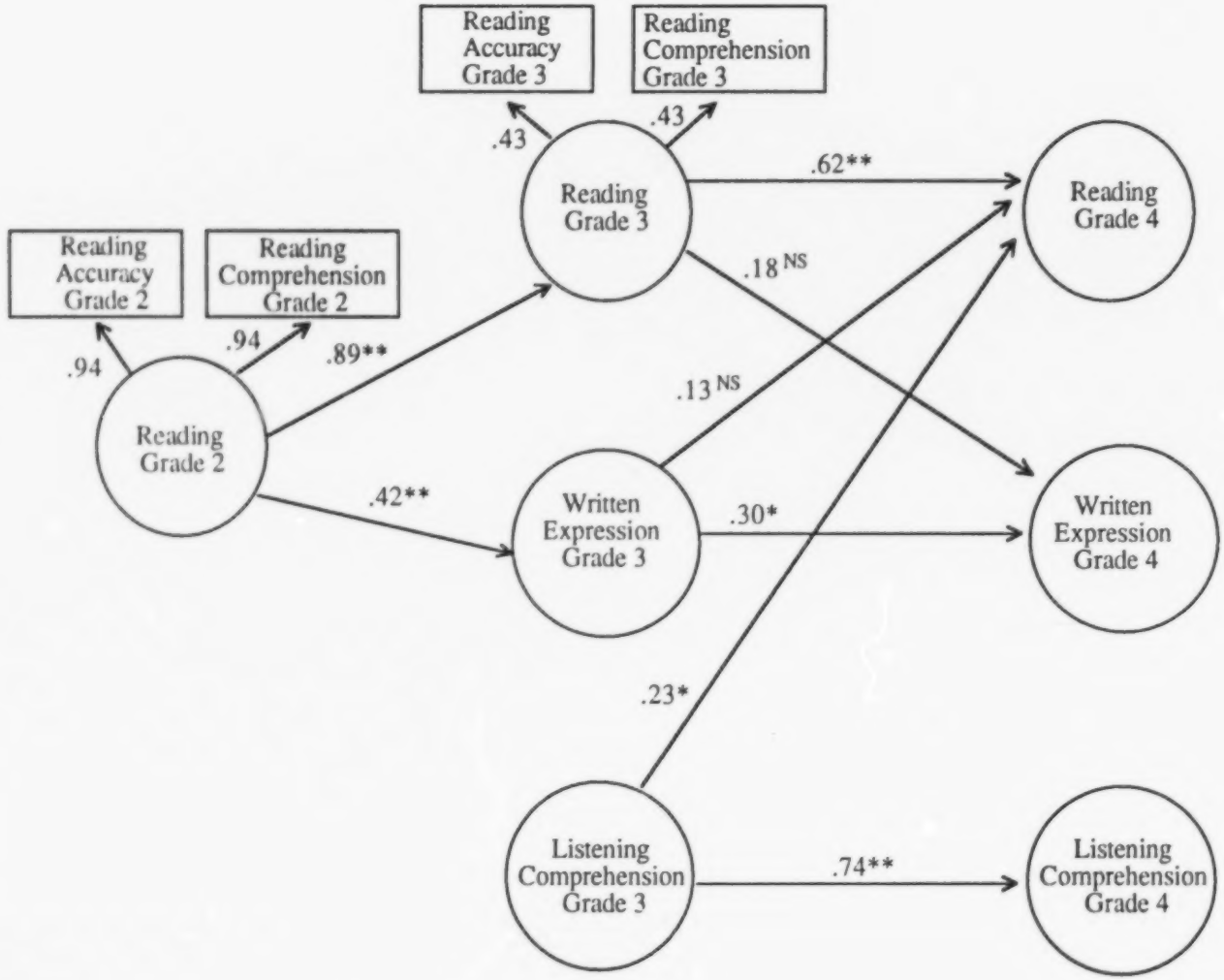

Reading Accuracy Grade 3
Reading Comprehension Grade 3
.66
.66
Reading Grade 3
.66**
Reading Grade 4
Reading Accuracy Grade 2
Reading Comprehension Grade 2
.22**
.94
.94
.67**
.26**
Reading Grade 2
.13 NS
Written Expression Grade 3
.24*
Written Expression Grade 4
.04 NS
Listening Comprehension Grade 3
.71**
Listening Comprehension Grade 4

Figure 2

Causal Model For Normally Achieving Children


Reading Accuracy Grade 3
Reading Comprehension Grade 3
.43
.43
Reading Grade 3
.62**
Reading Grade 4
Reading Accuracy Grade 2
Reading Comprehension Grade 2
.18 NS
.94
.94
.89**
.13 NS
Reading Grade 2
.42**
Written Expression Grade 3
.30*
Written Expression Grade 4
.23*
Listening Comprehension Grade 3
.74**
Listening Comprehension Grade 4